

The Numerical Simulation of Radiative Shocks.

I: The elimination of numerical shock instabilities using a localized oscillation filter

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ABSTRACT

We address a numerical instability that arises in the directionally split computation of hydrodynamic flows when shock fronts are parallel to a grid plane. Transverse oscillations in pressure, density and temperature are produced that are exacerbated by thermal instability when cooling is present, forming post-shock ‘stripes’. These are orthogonal to the classic post-shock ‘ringing’ fluctuations. The resulting post-shock ‘striping’ substantially modifies the flow. We discuss three different methods to resolve this problem. These include (1) a method based on artificial viscosity; (2) grid-jittering and (3) a new localized oscillation filter that acts on specific grid cells in the shock front. These methods are tested using a radiative wall shock problem with an embedded shear layer. The artificial viscosity method is unsatisfactory since, while it does reduce post-shock ringing, it does not eliminate the stripes and the excessive shock broadening renders the calculation of cooling inaccurate, resulting in an incorrect shock location. Grid-jittering effectively counteracts striping. However, elsewhere on the grid, the shear layer is unphysically diffused and this is highlighted in an extreme case. The oscillation filter method removes stripes and permits other high velocity gradient regions of the flow to evolve in a physically acceptable manner. It also has the advantage of only acting on a small fraction of the cells in a two or three dimensional simulation and does not significantly impair performance.

1. Introduction

Computational hydrodynamics is an established research area in astrophysics and the insight gained by numerical simulations has advanced our knowledge in many topics including astrophysical jets, accretion discs, cosmology, star formation, supernovae and stellar structure, to name a few. Most of these simulations have been confined to the regime of adiabatic flow and in the case of extragalactic jets, for example, this assumption is warranted. However, when the flow is significantly radiative, as in the case of stellar jets (Blondin et al. 1990; Xu et al. 2000), or when radiative shocks are important, *e.g.* when light jets interact with dense material driving a radiative shock into the latter, an adiabatic approximation is no longer appropriate. The effect of radiative cooling on the internal energy needs to be taken into account and this affects the resulting flow substantially. The research presented in this paper arose from the conduct of such simulations that will be reported in subsequent papers in this series. A numerical shock instability, which is often present at some level in adiabatic simulations, is exacerbated by cooling and becomes so severe that it probably invalidates any physical interpretation of the results. This instability therefore needs to be controlled when conducting simulations containing radiative shocks.

The instability to which we are referring is one which occurs in directionally split codes, when a shock propagates parallel, or nearly parallel, to a coordinate plane, and is most obvious when the shock velocity is small with respect to the grid (see Figure 1). Small errors in cells parallel to the shock front are amplified, leading to trailing perpendicular stripes, representing transverse quasi-periodic density, pressure and temperature fluctuations, as the shock propagates. In adiabatic flow, this “striping” often damps out in the post-shock region where the sound speed is high, and usually is not a significant cause for concern. However, when cooling is dynamically important, density fluctuations are thermally unstable; this leads to prominent, unphysical features in the flow. This problem is not isolated to the code that is the subject of this paper – a code based on the *VH-1* implementation of the Piecewise Parabolic Method (PPM; Colella & Woodward (1984a); CW84). The problem is generic and occurs in other directionally split codes. For example, we have encountered it using both two and three dimensional versions of the *ZEUS* code (Stone & Norman 1992a,b). In part the instability is related to cells that are slightly over-pressured, driving matter into lower pressure cells.

The source of the striping is described by CW84¹. To quote from their paper: “ In the column of zones where a shock transition occurs, a small disturbance develops in tangential velocity, due to numerical error. These small velocities transport large amounts of the

¹see § 4 of their paper

conserved quantities, creating in effect, large sources and sinks in the shock transition zone for the essentially one-dimensional calculations of the motion of the shock in each row of zones. Finally, although we have discussed these errors in terms of the single-step Eulerian schemes, they occur as well when the PPM Eulerian scheme is formulated as a Lagrangian step followed by a remap”. As we have mentioned above, this instability becomes much more important when cooling is introduced. It should also be appreciated that the seed for the instability may be physical rather than numerical and we give an example of this in § 3. For example, a wave propagating along a shock front, may provide the seed for the instability which is then unphysically amplified by the mechanism indentified by CW84. The fact that stripes only form when the shock front is almost parallel to one of the grid planes also indicates that the instability is numerical.

Standard ways of dealing with post-shock fluctuations include the introduction of either artificial viscosity or grid “jittering”. Artificial viscosity smoothes the shock over more than two zones, thereby reducing the fluctuations between zones parallel to the shock front as it propagates across the grid. Grid-jittering involves displacement of the grid in an oscillatory fashion thereby smoothing fluctuations between cells with the additional numerical diffusion from the modified grid resampling process. Both of these techniques can be useful. However, they have the disadvantage that they are applied to the entire flow. This means that otherwise sharp features, *e.g.* tangential discontinuities in velocity, are smoothed unnecessarily, degrading the resolution. We give examples of this in § 3. We have therefore implemented a new approach involving a “localized oscillation filter”. This filter applies a light smoothing to cells parallel to the shock front, in one sweep, using information stored from the previous orthogonal sweeps. In this case the smoothing is applied to cells local to a shock *in the previous orthogonal sweep*, even though the current sweep may be parallel to the shock and should not include any significant velocity variations. The localized action of this smoothing avoids many of the undesirable side-effects of other methods. In the following sections we describe the filter in some detail and then present some comparison calculations.

In the work described here we have utilized a version of the *VH-1* code, made available by Blondin *et al.* via the web-site (<http://wonka.physics.ncsu.edu/pub/VH-1/>). We have extensively reorganized the basic code for vectorization and overall efficiency on the ANU Fujitsu VPP300 computer as well as adding subroutines to advect a passive scalar that distinguishes different gases and to update the energy density, using an implicit method, when optically thin radiative cooling operates. The new code is now called, simply, *ppmlr*, to distinguish it from *VH-1* and to refer to the method used.

2. The Local Oscillation Filter

As mentioned above, methods involving global smoothing in one form or another have been used to suppress post-shock ringing and stripes. In this paper, we report a spatially and temporally localized method of eliminating the striping problem, the ‘Local Oscillation Filter’ (hereafter *LOF*), which interferes minimally with most of the cells in a multi-dimensional simulation. The filter consequently preserves the high resolution nature of modern hydrodynamic methods. In particular, it preserves the excellent shock-capturing characteristics of PPM.

The *LOF* is constructed to use additional information from previous orthogonal sweeps (*e.g.* the previous x -sweep for the current y -sweep) as follows:

1. In a PPM code, the shock-capturing regions, usually about one to three cells in extent, are clearly indicated by “flattened” cells. These are cells where the piecewise parabolic interpolation is replaced by a piecewise linear interpolation, reducing to a first order Godunov method in the shock front itself. For example, following an x -sweep in a two-dimensional simulation with a shock propagating in the x -direction, there is a band of flattened cells parallel to the shock front (see Figure 2). These are marked for reference in the subsequent y -sweep.
2. In the y -sweep, following the lagrangian advection, the code searches in only the cells ‘flattened’ in the prior x -sweep, for a specific pattern of density variations that is indicative of striping. We require this to extend over at least five lagrangian cells and to have at least 3 vertices, *e.g.* HLHLH or LHLHL (where H is “high” and L is “low” density). A single vertex, or three-cell LHL or HLH pattern, occurs too frequently because of random fluctuations and is an insufficient criterion for stripe detection. A schematic version of this procedure is given in Figure 3.

We take the detection threshold in the density variation, $\Delta\rho/\rho$, to be of order 10^{-6} . The entire y -sweep row is searched for the three-vertex pattern, and the vertex cells are marked for attention during the standard remap step, where the lagrangian cells are interpolated back onto the Eulerian grid.

3. Immediately subsequent to the remap step the zone averages of flagged vertex cells are reassigned. (A brief description of the lagrangian Riemann method with a remap to a fixed Eulerian grid is given in the Appendix, to more clearly show where this additional dissipation fits into a normal ppm method.)

Let Q_i represent the zone average of either mass, momentum or specific energy densities (ρ , ρu or E). The reassignment of zone averages is defined in a conservative fashion

by:

$$\begin{aligned} Q_i &\rightarrow Q_i + \alpha (Q_{i+1} - Q_i) \\ Q_{i+1} &\rightarrow Q_{i+1} - \alpha (Q_{i+1} - Q_i) \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

Typically, α is no larger than 0.075 and we have successfully used $\alpha = 0.05$. This additional smoothing successfully damps the erroneous growing mass exchange and related stripe growth.

4. Cells that are flattened in the y -sweep as a result of shocks in that direction are marked for potential smoothing in the subsequent x -sweep, and so on.

In contrast to 1D artificial viscosity, which only smooths strong velocity gradients in the *current* sweep, the *LOF* shares information between otherwise independent sweeps, and smooths cells that artificial viscosity does not affect. This is similar to the multi-dimensional velocity divergence artificial viscosity from Colella & Woodward (1984b), but the *LOF* has the advantage in that a much smaller number of cells are smoothed.

An important feature of this method is that in a 2D or 3D simulation, the marked cells typically constitute a small fraction of the cells that are associated with strong shock and that are ‘flattened’ during the previous sweep. The marked cells usually constitute less than 0.001% of the total cells in the test 320×64 cell simulation since the filtering is *only applied when the up-down pattern of the striping occur in the flattened zones*. In some sweeps, no striping is detected and consequently *no* cells are smoothed. Since additional calculations are only employed for a limited number of cells and time-steps, the performance impact of the additional calculations for this method is minimal, typically amounting to less than 5% in the cells processed per second.

3. Comparison of techniques

3.1. The test problem

Let us now compare some of the previous techniques for handling shock-striping with the *LOF* approach. For a test calculation (see Figure 4) we set up a radiative, Mach 15 flow incident from the left upon a dense layer (a wall) at the right. Mass flows out of the right hand grid boundary at a rate slightly less than the mass flux of the incoming flow keeping the dense layer more or less constant in thickness during the simulation. The outflow velocity is sub-sonic and less than 1% of the inflow velocity. The lower and upper boundary conditions are periodic. To break perfect 1D symmetry, which *ppmlr* handles correctly without smoothing, velocity gradients are introduced into the flow in the form of

a narrow shear layer. This is established by increasing the inflow velocity over the four cells adjacent to the boundaries by 1, 3, 7 and 10 % at the grid edges. The grid resolution is 320×64 .

The physical evolution of this simulation is as follows: First, a radiative shock is reflected from the wall. Then, as a result of post-shock cooling, the shock stalls and collapses against the cooling high density layer that forms adjacent to the wall. The shock then reforms, expands and collapses repeatedly. At the same time, the Kelvin-Helmholtz instability guarantees that the shear layer is unstable and produces the characteristic pattern of alternating vortices. The growth rate of the instability is largest in the post-shock region where the differential Mach number across the layer is least. The growth rate of the instability is negligible in the pre-shock region because of the hypersonic Mach number. The introduction of the shear layer to this test problem is valuable since it enables us to judge the effect of different methods on other large velocity gradients in the flow.

The four snapshots in Figure 4 are images of the *temperature* in the flow, near the point in time at which the first shock attains its maximum distance from the wall (in the “standard” simulation). In each snapshot, the periodic simulation is replicated once in the vertical direction. This has the result of showing the unstable shear layer in the middle of each image. The grayscale of each image has been adjusted non-linearly to enhance the salient features. In the shocked regions, white represents the coolest temperatures, black the hottest. In the precursor regions and the post shock cool gas, the images were scaled in a different fashion. Gray represents a temperature of about 7500K and white is approximately 1% hotter. This shows the effect of the smoothing methods on the supersonic shear layer before it is shocked.

3.2. The “standard” model

Our first test involves using *ppmlr* without any smoothing/anti-stripping options activated; this is the ‘standard’ model. Post-shock stripes of alternating higher and lower temperatures, with peak to peak variations of 10% or more, are evident in this simulation for about the first quarter of the post-shock flow. Downstream of this region, additional, larger inhomogeneities are also evident. The expected instability of the shear layer is not strong, however it spreads slightly as the interior pressure drops, and pulsations are visible.

In panel (a) of Figure 5 the transverse y -profiles of density and pressure in the immediate post-shock zone are shown. The mean density has almost attained its correct post-shock value indicated by the dotted line, but there are obvious fluctuations in both density and

pressure. Also note (see specifically the cells marked 1 and 2, that the pressure and density fluctuations are anti-correlated. This is the result of positive fluctuations in pressure pushing matter into the adjacent low pressure cells. Panel (b) of the same figure shows the fluctuations in pressure and density several cells downstream of the shock. The pressure fluctuations have smoothed out somewhat but the density fluctuations have grown as a result of thermal instability.

In subsequent simulations in this suite of comparisons, oblique waves are obvious in the post-shock region. These are related to waves on the shock front. These waves are absent or appear at a low level in the standard simulation because of the pressure perturbations associated with the stripes in the region near the shock.

3.3. Artificial viscosity

The “Lapidus artificial viscosity” simulation was performed with the addition of code designed to implement the artificial viscosity of Lapidus (1967). This viscosity is proportional to the local velocity gradient, in the direction of the sweep. It might be argued that this could eliminate striping, by smoothing the shock and eliminating the irregularities that cause the stripes. Of course, an unappealing feature of this approach is that one of the major strengths of the PPM method is that shock capturing does not normally require the use of artificial viscosity. Some of the deficiencies of this approach are evident in the second snapshot. First, the shock reaches its maximum extent earlier and does not expand as far as the standard shock. This is probably caused by unphysical, additional cooling caused by incorrect densities in the post-shock zone. Second, even with a level of artificial viscosity that causes such undesirable simulation features, post-shock striping remains. Much higher levels of artificial viscosity would be required to reduce the striping, but it is never entirely eliminated even with quite high values, as long as the smoothing remains aligned with the sweeps. Third, the stripes are still strong, but have a lower spatial frequency.

3.4. Grid jittering

The third snapshot in Figure 4 shows the results of conducting the simulation with the incorporation of grid-jittering. The grid was jittered in the y -direction only, with a speed equivalent to seven percent of the Courant length per time step (0.042 of a grid cell with Courant number, $C = 0.6$). The snapshot shows that this amount of grid jittering successfully counteracts striping and other tests showed that a level of grid jittering in

between five and seven percent is capable of eliminating stripes. With the stripes eliminated, the oblique waves, referred to above, are apparent. Nevertheless, the grid is jittered over the entire flow, and the velocity gradients in the post-shock shear layer region are smoothed as a result. Consequently, the shear layer does not grow rapidly (especially when compared to the local oscillation filter simulation described below). In this case, the shear layer is also affected in the pre-shock region, with excessive diffusion resulting in spreading of the layer and associated pressure and temperature effects. The effect of the grid-jittering in the pre-shock region is quite unphysical. There are no Kelvin-Helmholtz vortices produced, but simply a redistribution of the velocity resulting in a broader stream layer at the shock face than in the other simulations. This also appears to have an effect on the degree of instability in the post-shock shear layer.

3.5. Local Oscillation Filter

The fourth snapshot shows the effect of the *LOF*. This has several desirable features. The post-shock striping is absent; the shear layer starts to become unstable almost immediately following the shock and although there are initially only less than six pixels across the shear layer the detail is excellent. At the contact discontinuity between the incoming flow and the dense layer adjacent to the wall, there is more detail in the flow. With the stripes absent, the oblique wave pattern noted above, is quite apparent. The pre-shock region and shear layer are unaffected.

The amplitude of this simulation is very close to the standard model and the grid-jittered model. The general features of the simulations are similar to those of the grid-jittered model, in general, except that the resolution appears better. The fraction of cells that have been smoothed in this simulation averages to about 6×10^{-4} of the total cells, over the total of approximately 2300 $x - y$ iterations. Additionally, in about 46% of the sweeps, no smoothing took place at all, and frequently less than 10% of the cells adjacent to the shock front region are smoothed in a given sweep. This means that most of the cells are untouched by the smoothing and the simulation retains the maximum resolution allowed by the ppmlr method. The decrease in code performance resulting from additional testing and smoothing in this simulation is less than 4% overall. This small simulation has a high I/O overhead however and the impact on larger simulations is expected to be less.

4. A More Severe Test

With only 10% shear velocities, the grid-jittering and the *LOF* perform similarly well. However, with stronger shear layers, the excessive diffusion introduced by the jittering technique is unsatisfactory. The Local Oscillation Filter is designed so as not to affect shear layers, or even large steps in velocity, but to focus upon the characteristic up-down noise of the striping error.

In order to see at what point grid jittering becomes a problem, and whether the *LOF* can cope with the same conditions, we performed a simulation with an increased shear gradient, maintaining the same smoothing as in the first simulation - that is sufficient jittering and *LOF* smoothing to just remove the stripes. The shear was increased to 1, 5, 20, and 50% velocity increase at the grid boundary. This is more extreme, but still less than a factor of unity compared to the bulk velocity, and thus is not an unreasonable test case.

The results of the standard, jittered and *LOF* models are shown in Figure 6, at a model step corresponding to 40% of the peak shock amplitude in the x -direction. The standard model shows the usual striping, and some shear instability in the post-striping region. The Local Oscillation Filter model has no stripes, the same shock front location, some oblique waves, and the shear instability is well developed in the post-shock region. The stream has also started to dig a hole in the dense wall layer, depositing energy there. The grid-jittering model, however, is different. The shear layer in the precursor region has been diffused so much by the jittering that the wider stream of gas has a significantly different pressure over a large fraction of the shock front, strongly deforming the shock front in the region of the shear layer impact. The post shock shear layer is completely disrupted and less energy is deposited into the dense layer, probably accounting for the increased amplitude of the shock.

We conclude that in the case of a strong shear layer parallel to the grid, jittering can cause quite major errors. By operating as a localized spatial filter, the Local Oscillation Filter avoids this particular problem, having no effect on the regions outside the shock front location.

5. Conclusions

The work we have described here represents the first step in a project aimed at the accurate simulation of radiatively cooling flows, particularly those which contain embedded shocks. As we have seen, the inclusion of cooling is not simply a matter of adding the right terms to the energy equation. One also needs to consider numerical instabilities that may be

enhanced by thermal instabilities. In this paper we have investigated a classic case, that of post-shock striping that occurs when shock fronts are parallel to a coordinate grid. This is not a contrived situation and occurs, for example, near the axis of a supersonic jet simulation. Our local oscillation filter solution is simple and the tests that we have presented show it to be effective. It has the advantage that it does not affect other regions of the flow, nor does it significantly affect the overall performance of the code.

Appendix: The Lagrangian – Eulerian PPM method with Additional Remapping Dissipation

As is common in methods based on the PPM algorithm, *VH1* and *ppmlr* use a Lagrangian time step, where the fluxes at the cell boundaries are evaluated from the solution of the local Riemann problem. After moving the boundaries, $\xi_{j+1/2}$, which are contact discontinuities, the solution is remapped to the original Eulerian grid, $\xi_{i+1/2}$. (Note that we use a subscript i for the Eulerian grid and a j for the Lagrangian grid. Proper selection of the Courant number C , prevents the boundaries from moving more than an Eulerian grid cell in a single time step, keeping the remapping process simple and accurate.

Solving the Riemann problem at the Lagrangian cell boundary, $\xi_{j+1/2}$, gives the velocity at the contact discontinuity u_* . After parabolic interpolation over the region within the domain of dependence of the solution at $\xi_{j+1/2}, t^{n+1}$, the left and right states W_L and W_R of the primitive variables ρ , u , and p are known. The Riemann problem is then solved for the region between the two outer waves – the so-called star region. The velocity and pressure, u_* and p_* , in this central region are constant, and u_* , velocity of the contact discontinuity, is given by

$$u_* = \frac{1}{2}(u_L + u_R) + \frac{1}{2}[f_R(p_*) - f_L(p_*)], \quad (2)$$

where u_L and u_R are the initial left and right velocities, and $f_R(p_*)$ and $f_L(p_*)$ are functions determined by the nature of the outer waves in the Riemann solution; these are either rarefaction or shocks. For a clear and detailed description of how $f_R(p_*)$ and $f_L(p_*)$ are determined, see Toro (1999). Following the solution to the Riemann problem on each cell boundary, the coordinates of the cell boundary $\xi_{j+1/2}$ are moved with the velocities u_* over the timestep Δt ,

$$\xi_{j+1/2}^{n+1} = \xi_{j+1/2}^n + u_{*,j+1/2} \Delta t. \quad (3)$$

The cell boundary follows the contact discontinuity in the Riemann problem, so that at the end of the step each cell is naturally constrained to contain the same mass as at the beginning of the time step.

Using parabolic interpolation in the volume coordinate (as described in CW84), the hydrodynamic grid is remapped back to the original Eulerian grid in the following way. The volume ΔV of the overlapping regions between the updated Lagrangian grid, ξ_j and the original Eulerian grid ξ_i , is determined:

$$\Delta V_{i+1/2} = \xi_{j+1/2} - \xi_{i+1/2}. \quad (4)$$

Then, effective mass, momentum, and energy fluxes, $F_{i+1/2}$ between the Eulerian cells are evaluated from:

$$F_{i+1/2} = \Delta V_{i+1/2} \langle q_{i+1/2} \rangle, \quad (5)$$

where the $\langle q_{i+1/2} \rangle$ represent the averages of the relevant dynamic quantities ($q = \rho, \rho u$ or E) over the volume $\Delta V_{i+1/2}$. The remapping fluxes are used to redistribute the Lagrangian gridded variables onto the Eulerian grid, and the pressure is updated at the end from ρ , the velocity, u and the total specific energy, E . Note that the fluxes, $F_{i+1/2}$ are positive if the Lagrangian boundary moves to the right, because of the convention in defining $\Delta V_{i+1/2}$. The remapping procedure maintains the conservative nature of the Lagrangian method.

The Local Oscillation Filter transports a small amount of mass, momentum and energy in the opposite direction in the flagged cells. Thus, immediately following the remap step, the Eulerian zone average, Q_i of a given quantity, q_i is modified by:

$$\begin{aligned} Q_i &\rightarrow Q_i + \alpha (Q_{i+1} - Q_i) \\ Q_{i+1} &\rightarrow Q_{i+1} - \alpha (Q_{i+1} - Q_i) \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

where the coefficient $\alpha \lesssim 0.075$. Hence, an excess (deficit) of Q_{i+1} over Q_i is reduced (increased) by a small amount and in a conservative fashion. The zone average is modified only if both the cell has been flattened during a previous orthogonal sweep and also if the pattern of variations in density satisfies the “HLHLH” criteria. This ansatz amounts to a modification of the remapping fluxes according to

$$F_{i+1/2} \rightarrow F_{i+1/2} - \alpha (Q_{i+1} - Q_i) \quad (7)$$

bearing in mind that the Q_i have been obtained from the previously unmodified fluxes. This reassignment of zone averages critically damps the instability. The value of $\alpha \approx 0.075$ was arrived at through experimentation.

In summary, the modification of fluxes is implemented in the following way. Cells that are flattened in one sweep are marked (using an integer array). When an HLHLH or LHLHL density pattern is detected in marked cells in one of the subsequent orthogonal sweeps, the remapped zone averages of all variables into and out of the vertex cells in the pattern are modified using equation (6). For example in our test problem, flattened cells are detected in

the x -sweep. When the appropriate density variation pattern is picked up in the ensuing y -sweep, the zone averages in the y -direction are modified in such a way as to partially reverse the numerical fluxes into and out of the vertex cells in the pattern. A critical point in our LOF algorithm is that this effective dissipation is only applied in restricted regions but not globally. This prevents unnecessary dissipation in regions such as shear layers; regions such as these are affected by all of the other algorithms that we have discussed.

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Figure Captions

Figure 1: A portion of a typical 2D strong radiative shock model using a directionally split sweep code. Striping can occur at the stagnation point of bowshocks (a), but may be absent altogether when the shock is oblique to the grid (b). Flat portions of a nearly stationary shock (c) are particularly prone to this type of error. All of these situations can occur simultaneously in a given simulation.

Figure 2: A small portion of a Mach 15 shock simulation in two dimensions, with uniform, one dimensional initial conditions. Small grid errors in VH-1 stimulate the stripe instability. In the *ppmlr* code the grid errors are removed and the system remains pseudo one-dimensional indefinitely. However, small perturbations still cause strong striping in *ppmlr* unless further steps are taken to control the instability.

Figure 3: A schematic representation of the *LOF* smoothing, showing the grid density cells. In the x -sweep, cells in the shock transition zone use a lower order interpolation scheme, and are said to be ‘flattened’. In the y -sweep, cells in the x -flattened cells are searched for three high-low-high or low-high-low density ‘vertices’ in a row (requiring 5 high-low density points in a row). In the diagram, only the cells marked V_y are density vertices by this definition in the y -sweep. Of these cells, only the cells in the left column will be smoothed by the *LOF* because there are more than 5 cells marked in a row. The shorter run of 4 vertices in the right column will not be smoothed. In practice, the vertices in the right column will not occur, because that gas will have already been smoothed when passing through the left column of the grid.

Figure 4: Snapshots of temperature, at the same instant of time, of four different wall-shock simulations comparing different approaches to the elimination of post-shock striping. In each case, a Mach 15 supersonic inflow enters from the left, producing a reflected shock from a dense wall layer on the right. A shear layer with increased velocity in steps of 1%, 3%, 7% and 10% at the edges of each grid slightly modifies the planar nature of the shock front and induces particularly strong striping. In the figures, the periodic nature of the boundaries in the y -direction is shown by repeating the grid, showing the shear layer as a stream in the middle of the simulation. The gray scale is a non-linear scaling applied to the logarithm of the temperature, to best show the small ($\leq 10\%$) fluctuations on top of the intrinsic 10-100 fold variations in temperature caused by the shock. In the precursor region the contrast enhancement is more extreme to show variations $\ll 1\%$, revealing small temperature errors in the grid-jittering model which are absent in the other simulations.

Figure 5: Plots of the density and pressure in the immediate post shock zone (panel (a)) and a few zones downstream of the shock (panel (b)). Panel (a) shows significant fluctuations

in density and pressure as a result of the instability. The density and pressure are anti-correlated as a result of the perturbations driving mass from the high pressure zones into the low pressure zones. In panel (b) the pressure fluctuations have diminished but the density fluctuations have survived as a result of the thermal instability.

Figure 6: Snapshots of temperature, at the same instant of time, of three different simulations, similar to figure 4, but with an increased shear profile of 1%, 5%, 20% and 50% over the velocity of the incoming stream. The pre-shock jittering spreads the shear layer, substantially modifying the shock front, disrupting the post shock stream completely, resulting in a different shock amplitude and appearance. The *LOF* simulation eliminates the standard model’s stripes without affecting the shear layer at all.

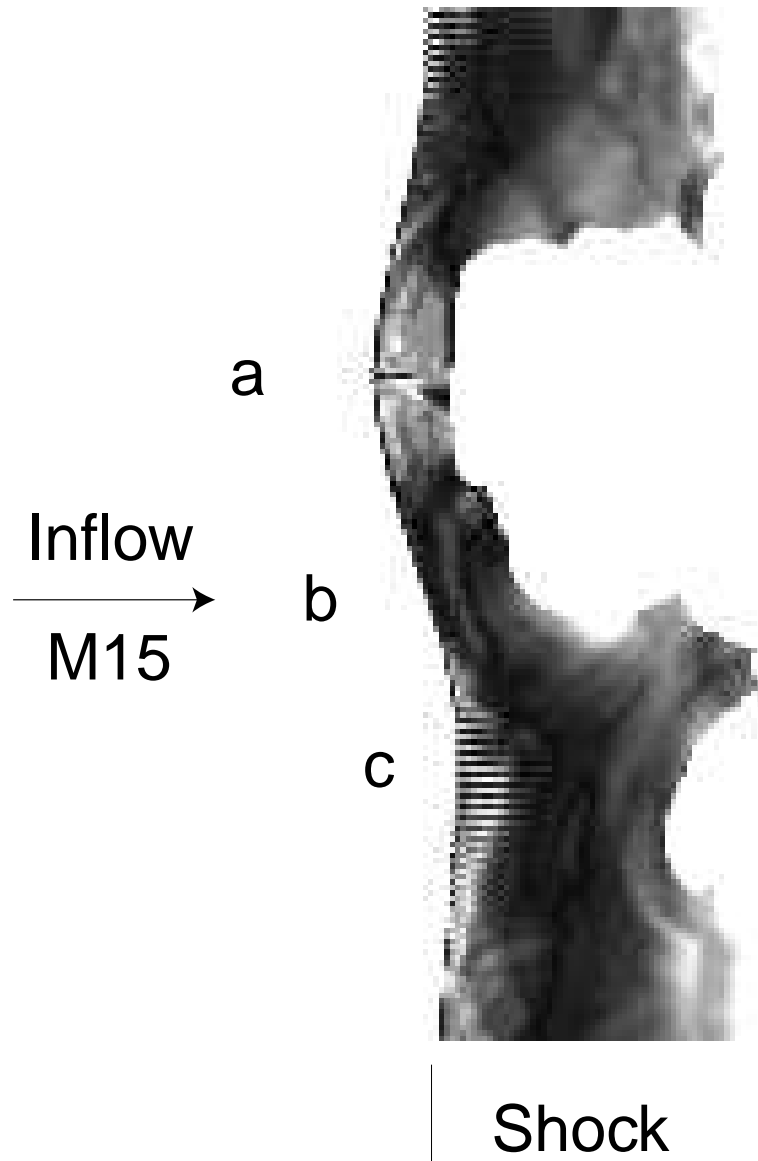


Fig. 1.—

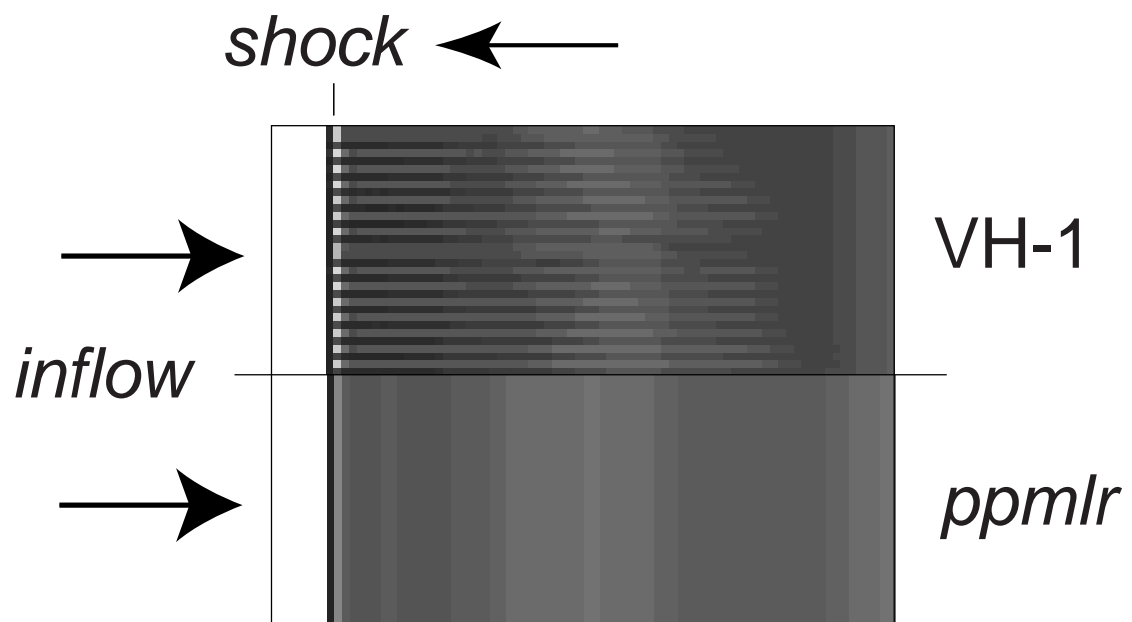


Fig. 2.—

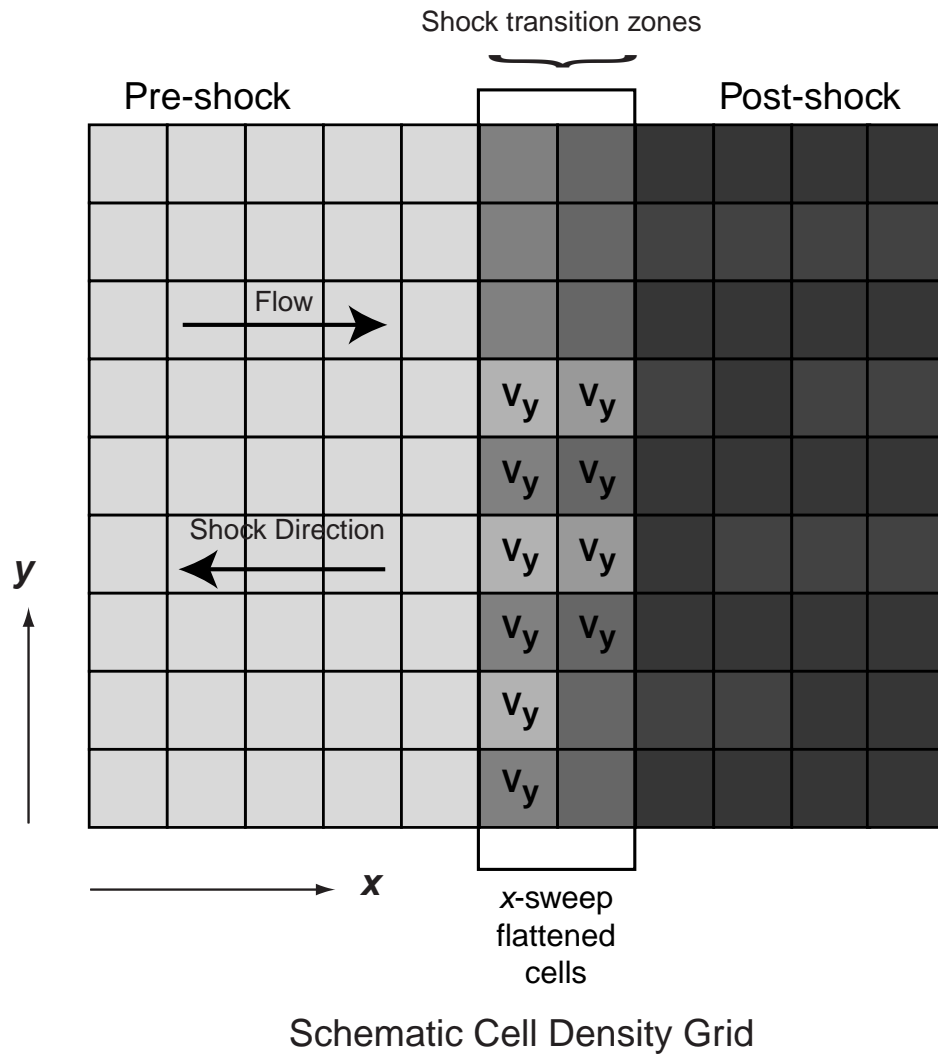


Fig. 3.—

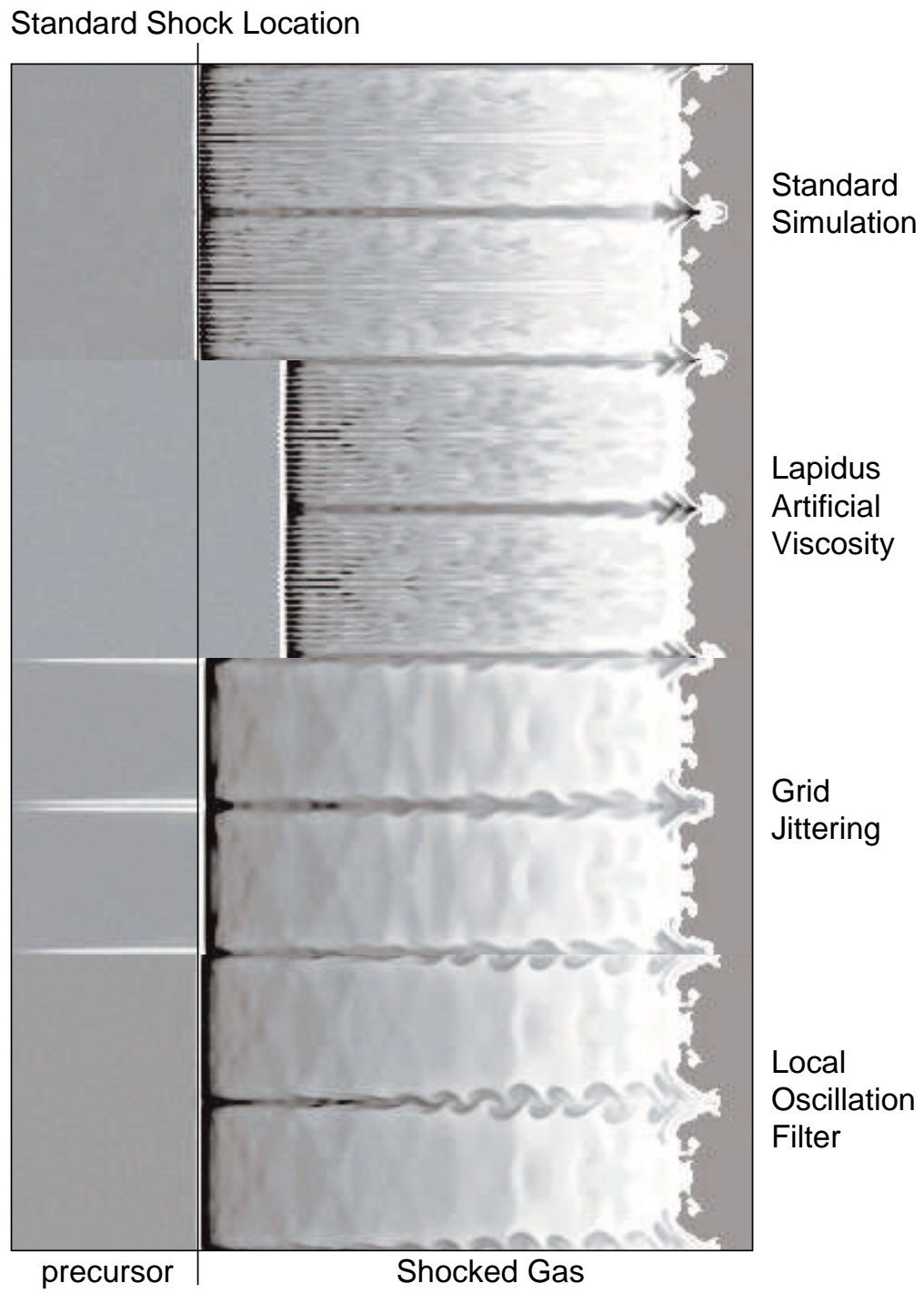


Fig. 4.—

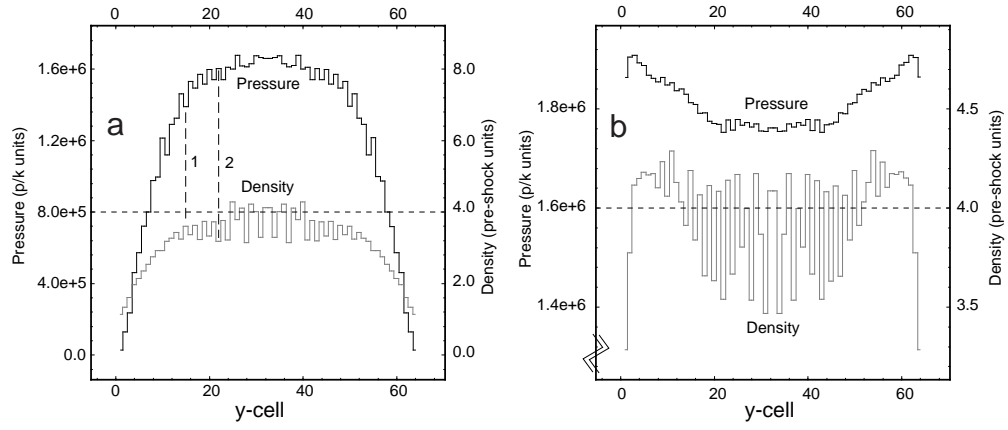


Fig. 5.—

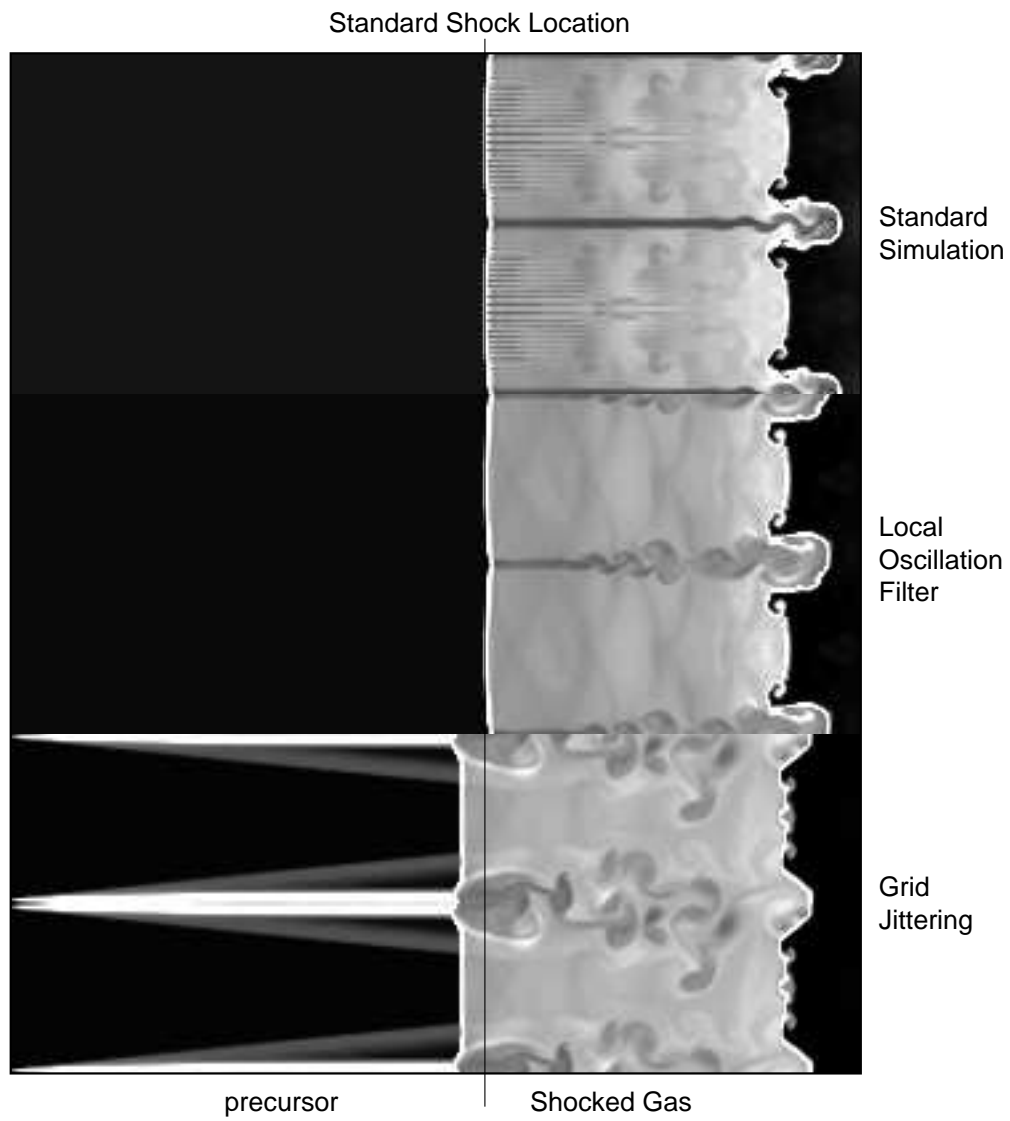


Fig. 6.—